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ATTRIBUTIONS OF FAULT AS A FUNCTION OF A RAPE  
VICTIM'S EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT AND  
SITUATIONAL RELEVANCY

by

Pamela Mary Mc Mahon

A Thesis

Presented to the Graduate Committee  
of Lehigh University

in Candidacy for the Degree of  
Master of Science

in

Psychology

Lehigh University

1982

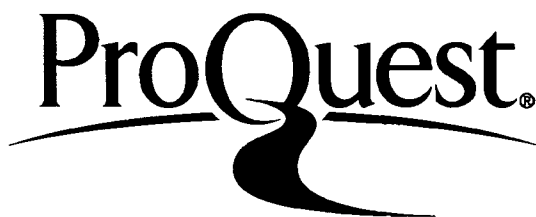
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11

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And when it come to character, warn't it Compeyson as had been to school, and warn't his schoolfellows as was in this position and in that...And warn't it me as had been tried afore, and as had been know'd up hill and down dale...And when it come to speech-making, warn't it Compeyson as could speak to 'em wi' his face dropping every now and then into his white pocket-handkercher... and warn't it me as could only say, 'Gentlemen, this man at my side is a most precious rascal'? And when the verdict come, warn't it Compeyson as was recommended to mercy on account of good character and bad company, and giving up all the information he could agen me, and warn't it me as got never a word but Guilty?

Charles Dickens, Great Expectations

## Table of Contents

|  | Page |
|--|------|
| Chapter 1  |      |
| Statement of the Problem                             | 2    |
| Victim Characteristics                               | 5    |
| Victim's Similarity to Juror                         | 6    |
| Victim's Honesty                                     | 8    |
| Victim's Attractiveness                              | 8    |
| Victim's Pleasantness                                | 10   |
| Victim's Respectability                              | 10   |
| Victim's Age and Prior Sexual Experience             | 12   |
| Victim's Emotional Adjustment                        | 12   |
| Perpetrator Characteristics                          | 13   |
| Perpetrator's Attractiveness                         | 14   |
| Demonstrated Level of Remorse                        | 15   |
| Defendant's Physical Condition                       | 15   |
| Familial Support and Defendant's Gender              | 16   |
| Juror Characteristics                                | 16   |
| Juror's Gender                                       | 17   |
| Locus of Control                                     | 17   |
| Juror's Educational Level                            | 18   |
| Level of Conservatism and Religiosity                | 19   |
| Circumstantial Characteristics                       | 20   |
| Group Discussion of Assigned Sentence                | 20   |
| Severity of Sentence Options and Escaped Accomplices | 21   |
| Pretrial Publicity                                   | 22   |

|  | Page |
|--|------|
| Sex Roles and Personal Attributes<br>Questionnaire     | 22   |
| Hypotheses of the Present Investigation                | 25   |
| Chapter 2  |      |
| Method   | 29   |
| Subjects   | 29   |
| Materials  | 29   |
| Personal Attributes Questionnaire                      | 29   |
| Tape Recording of the Victim                           | 30   |
| Procedure  | 31   |
| Chapter 3  |      |
| Results  | 33   |
| Situational Relevance, Victim<br>Adjustment, and Cases | 33   |
| Sex Role Attitudes                                     | 33   |
| Chapter 4  |      |
| Discussion   | 35   |
| References   | 43   |
| Appendix A   | 66   |
| Appendix B   | 70   |
| Appendix C   | 72   |
| Vita   | 73   |



## List of Tables

|   | Page |
|---|------|
| Table 1: Victim Characteristics   | 56   |
| Table 2: Perpetrator Characteristics  | 59   |
| Table 3: Juror Characteristics  | 61   |
| Table 4: Circumstantial Characteristics   | 63   |
| Table 5: Analysis of Variance on the Effects of Situational Relevancy, Victim Adjustment, and Case on Percent of Guilt attributed to the Victim | 64   |
| Table 6: Percentage of Subjects falling into each of the Sex Role Categories  | 65   |

## Abstract

Research was conducted with 126 college females. The primary purpose of this study was to determine if the percent of fault attributed to a rape victim varies as a function of the situational relevance (relevant/irrelevant) of the place of abduction and the victim's emotional adjustment (positive/negative) following the rape. Nested under each situational relevance condition were six cases taken to be representative of the condition. Each case was tape-recorded by one of 12 confederates who was randomly assigned to two cases. Finally, the Personal Attributes Questionnaire, a measure of sex role orientation, was also administered to subjects to determine if this factor is associated with the percent of guilt attributed to a rape victim for the crime. An unweighted means analysis revealed significant effects for case and for the interaction between case and victim's adjustment. A post hoc, unweighted means analysis also revealed a significant effect for confederates' voices on the percent of fault attributed to the victim. Finally, no relationship was found between sex role orientation and percent of guilt attributed to the rape victim.

CHAPTER 1

ATTRIBUTIONS OF FAULT AS A FUNCTION OF A RAPE  
VICTIM'S EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT AND  
SITUATIONAL RELEVANCY

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is a well-established fact that extra-evidential factors play an important role in mock juridic decisions. For example, numerous studies have demonstrated that victim (Alexander, 1980; Thornton, 1977; Fulero & De Lara, 1976), perpetrator (Barnett & Feild, 1978; Sigall & Ostrove, 1975; Nemeth & Sosis, 1973; Landy & Aronson, 1969), mock juror (Sison, 1979; Miller & Hewitt, 1978; Hoiberg & Stires, 1973; Nemeth & Sosis, 1973), and circumstantial (De Jong, Morris, & Hastorf, 1976; Padawer-Singer & Barton, 1975; Vidmar, 1972) characteristics affect the amount of blame attributed to an alleged perpetrator for a crime. However, the relationship among these variables is quite complex and appears to affect decisions concerning the guilt of a perpetrator and the amount of fault attributed to him in an interactive fashion (Kanekar, Kolsawalla, D'Souza, 1981; Ugwuegbu, 1979). Therefore, it is important for investigators to examine the effects of a variety of factors simultaneously rather than examining the effect of each factor in isolation.

In an attempt to explain the attributions which people give about innocent victims, Lerner (1965; 1970; 1977) formulated the just world hypothesis which asserts that people believe that one's hardships and joys are deserved. This allows one to view the world as stable and to pursue long-term goals in order to receive a just reward as the end product. Lerner's just world hypothesis generated much research concerned with the evaluation of victims who were the objects of numerous types of injustices (Lerner & Simmons, 1966; Walster, 1966; Jones & Aronson, 1973). According to the just world hypothesis, observers of a suffering individual tend to believe that the victim deserves his fate because he is a "bad" person or has behaved in a manner which deserves suffering. Although there has been some experimental support for this hypothesis, other studies have failed to yield results predicted from the just world hypothesis (Walster, 1967; Shaver, 1970; Chaikin & Darley, 1973; Miller & Hewitt, 1978).

Those studies supporting the just world hypothesis tended to use victims who were dissimilar to the subjects or who acted in ways which would automatically result in their suffering. For example, Lerner and Simmons (1966) found that those victims who volunteered to be shocked were found to be more deserving of their suffering than victims who did not volunteer to be

shocked.

Reviewing the literature dealing with victim evaluation, Shaver (1970) posited that a defensive attribution may account for some of the conflicting results concerning the evaluation of a victim. A defensive attribution essentially entails the assignment of less responsibility for a negative event to a person who is viewed as either similar to oneself or to a person who is described as being in a situation that is relevant to oneself. Many experimental studies have been conducted which support Shaver's contention (Miller & Hewitt, 1978; Sorrentino & Boutilier, 1974; Griffit & Jackson, 1973; Chaikin & Darley, 1973).

Because past studies supporting the defensive attribution hypothesis used only situations in which the observers were told that they would assume the role of the victim or the perpetrator in the study's next phase, it is not known if the results generated by these studies would generalize to situations in which observers are unaware of their fate. Therefore, the present study is concerned with manipulating the situational relevancy of an abduction and rape with respect to a college student to determine how this variable affects the amount of responsibility attributed to the victim due to the defensive attribution phenomenon.

In addition to manipulating the situational relevancy of the abduction, the victim's emotional state following the rape was also manipulated. It is interesting to note that although the period after a rape is the time when interpersonal problems arise, only two studies have investigated how the victim's reaction to rape affects others' attributions about her responsibility for the attack (Calhoun, Cann, Selby, & Magee, 1981; Coates, Wortman, Abbey, & Holland cited in Wortman, 1976). Because the victim's ultimate recovery from this traumatic event depends, to a great extent, on perceived social support, it is imperative that researchers investigate the conditions under which a woman's negative or positive reaction to being raped will affect the percent of blame assigned to her by others (Burgess & Holmstrom, 1974).

Finally, because rape is an assertion of the male's aggressiveness and the female's passiveness, which are both congruent with traditional sex role behaviors, the present study examines the relationship between one's sex role attitudes and the percent of guilt attributed to the victim and to the defendant.

#### VICTIM CHARACTERISTICS

Recent simulated jury research has demonstrated that many extralegal factors unintentionally affect a

juror's ultimate verdict in any given criminal case. These factors include the victim's similarity to the juror and the perceived honesty, attractiveness, pleasantness, respectability, age, sexual experience, and emotional adjustment of the victim. This section deals with a review of the literature concerned with this multitude of characteristics which have been found to affect the attribution of fault for a crime. A summary of the findings on victim characteristics is given in Table 1.

VICTIM'S SIMILARITY TO JUROR. Shaver (1970) maintains that a defensive attribution occurs when the perceiver of an incident is similar to the perpetrator or victim with respect to personal characteristics or situational relevancy. A defensive attribution entails the assignment of less responsibility for an outcome with negative consequences to a person viewed as similar to oneself, or to a person who is harmed in a situation the perceiver is likely to encounter. This acts as a protective device for the perceiver since she rejects the possibility that either a person similar to herself could harm another or that she herself could be severely injured. Lerner and Miller (1978) agree with Shaver's contention that empathy for the victim overcomes derogation of the victim when the observer anticipates being in the same situation in which the

crime took place. The implications of this hypothesis in jury research are obvious. Jury members perceiving themselves as similar to the victim or defendant are likely to assign less responsibility to that person for a negative outcome than are jury members perceiving themselves as dissimilar to the victim or defendant. Likewise, if a juror believes that she may encounter a situation resembling the one in which the victim was harmed, she will attribute more responsibility to the defendant than if she were not likely to encounter that specific type of situation.

Experimental support for the situational relevancy aspect of the defensive attribution hypothesis has been demonstrated by several studies. Chaikin and Darley (1973) found that subjects witnessing an injustice and being led to believe that they might soon be put in the harm doer's position were more likely to attribute responsibility for the negative outcome to sources other than the harm doer than did the future victims. That is, subjects who believed that they would soon be in the same situation as the harm doer attributed less responsibility for a negative outcome to the harm doer than did subjects who believed that they may be future victims in the study's next phase. Miller and Hewitt (1978) found that subjects were more likely to convict a rapist when the victim was of the same race as the



subjects. Finally, female participants, who perceived themselves as more similar to a divorced rather than to a married or virgin undergraduate woman, attributed less responsibility for a rape to the divorced victim than to the other victims (Fulero & De Lara, 1976).

VICTIM'S HONESTY. Sealy and Wain (1980)

utilized subjects from London's general population of persons eligible for jury duty in a mock jury study to determine whether jurors' perceptions of defendants and victims in both rape and theft cases are associated with the defendant's conviction. They concluded that the belief in the defendant's honesty in the theft case tends to be associated with a "not guilty" verdict. In the rape case, however, it appears that the victim, rather than the perpetrator, is on trial. Perceiving the defendant as untrustworthy in a sexual assault case does not correlate with his conviction. Instead, the juror's attribution of an honest character to the victim is highly related to the assignment of a "guilty" verdict.

VICTIM'S ATTRACTIVENESS. The physical attractiveness of the victim has been found to affect jury members' attribution of responsibility in rape cases, but not in other crimes. Physically attractive rape victims were perceived as more likely candidates for rape than were unattractive victims (Seligman, Brickman, & Koulack, 1977). Kanekar, Kolsawalla, and D'Souza (1981)

Corrections

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found a significant interaction between a mock juror's gender and the victim's attractiveness in estimating how likely it was that a rape would occur. Males rated rape as more likely to occur when the victim was unattractive. Perhaps the discrepancy between the findings of Kanekar et al. (1981) and those of Seligman et al. (1977) may be attributable to the different samples used. Graduate students in India and undergraduates in America served as subjects for Kanekar et al. and Seligman et al., respectively.

Seligman et al. (1977) also found that unattractive victims were viewed as having exerted more influence in perpetrating their rape than attractive victims. Perhaps mock jurors believe that unattractive women must behave in a provocative manner, otherwise the rapist would not have chosen them over attractive women to be sexually assaulted. It is interesting to note that Seligman and his colleagues found no differences in perceived provocation of the incident and in perceived likelihood of being attacked when considering attractive and unattractive victims of a mugging or a robbery. Calhoun, Selby, Cann, and Keller (1978) also concluded that a rape victim's attractiveness significantly affects subjects' perceptions of her responsibility for the crime. Their finding, though, is in the opposite direction of that found by Seligman et al. (1977). Perhaps these differ-

ences are due to the fact that both groups of researchers committed the category confound error by utilizing only one picture each to represent the attractive and the unattractive victim (Kay & Richter, 1977). Therefore, subjects may not have responded to the categories of attractive and unattractive females, but rather to the characteristics of the individuals represented in the pictures. The important conclusion pertaining to juridical research, however, is that all of these experiments found that there are significant differences in subjects' perceptions of the victim's involvement in her rape due merely to the legally extraneous factor of physical attractiveness.

VICTIM'S PLEASANTNESS. Landy and Aronson (1969) extended the importance of victim characteristics beyond that of physical beauty. They presented subjects with written scenarios of a negligent homicide case which resulted in the death of a victim exhibiting a pleasant versus unpleasant disposition. In two experiments they found that the sentence given to a defendant who killed an unpleasant victim was less than that given for the death of a pleasant person.

VICTIM'S RESPECTABILITY. Many other characteristics of the victim also affect the assignment of guilt to the victim. Alexander (1989) had nurses respond to vignettes describing respectable or unrespectable

female victims of rape or assault. She found that the victims described as not respectable were assigned more blame than respectable victims in both types of attack. Alexander's results are somewhat questionable since she totally confounded the length of acquaintanceship between the victim and the perpetrator with the victim's respectability. Specifically, the respectable victim was unacquainted with the assailant, while the victim who was described as not respectable had known her attacker for some period of time. Smith, Keating, Hester, and Mitchell (1976) separated the two factors of respectability and acquaintanceship by presenting their subjects with scenarios describing a topless-bottomless dancer, a social worker, or a Catholic nun who fell prey to a rapist who was either acquainted or unacquainted with the victim. Results indicated that the dancer was perceived as having greater responsibility for the attack than the other victims, and the nun was rated as least likely to have encouraged the rape. There was also a significant effect for acquaintanceship, with those who were acquainted with the assailant receiving higher blame ratings than those in the unacquainted condition. These results thus add credence to the findings of Alexander (1980). Further support for the respectability effect is provided by Jones and Aronson (1973) who found that more responsibility for

a rape was attributed to a divorced female than to a married or a virgin female. In this study, the women who were either married or virgins were rated as significantly more respectable than the divorced women.

VICTIM'S AGE AND PRIOR SEXUAL EXPERIENCE. Defend-  
ants raping victims from extreme age categories (6 years and 76 years of age) have been assigned more severe sentences than those attacking women in the middle-age category. Additionally, females in the middle-age range were viewed as more likely to have behaved in a manner conducive to the attack (Calhoun, Selby, Long, & Laney, 1980). Furthermore, Cann, Calhoun, and Selby (1979) found that the sexually experienced victim is viewed as more responsible for her violation than a sexually naive person.

VICTIM'S EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT. Coates, Wortman, Abbey, and Holland (cited in Wortman, 1976) had subjects read newspaper clippings indicating that rape was either uncommon (low vulnerability) or common (high vulnerability) in their community. Participants then listened to a tape recording of an alleged victim telling of the events which transpired prior to and during her rape. They found that subjects who had been led to believe that rape was uncommon in their community did not differentially assign blame to victims displaying positive versus negative adjustment. However, subjects reading

articles claiming that they were in a highly vulnerable position attributed more responsibility to a rape victim displaying positive adjustment. Perhaps this finding may be explained by an identification of the "vulnerable" subject with the rape victim. Because positive emotional adjustment following a rape may be viewed as inappropriate, those victims who succeed in overcoming the traumatic event of rape in a relatively short period of time may be viewed as having played a larger role in their victimization than victims who react very negatively to their rape. Calhoun, Cann, and Selby (1981) found a trend in their data suggesting that distraught victims were viewed as having more motivation to avoid their victimization than victims who were emotionally controlled. Furthermore, the more expressive victims were also rated as more credible in their claims that they were in fact raped. It is imperative for future research to continue to uncover the conditions under which a victim will be rejected given the fact that her ultimate recovery is often contingent upon perceived social support from significant others (Burgess & Holmstrom, 1974).

#### PERPETRATOR CHARACTERISTICS

Characteristics of the perpetrator have also been found to play an important role in a jury's ultimate verdict. For example, the attractiveness, level of



remorse, physical condition, familial support, and gender of the defendant have proven to be important extra-legal variables that significantly affect how much blame is attributed to the defendant in mock jury studies. Table 2 summarizes the results presented on the effects of perpetrator characteristics on guilt attributions.

PERPETRATOR'S ATTRACTIVENESS. The defendant trait most frequently investigated is attractiveness (Jacobson, 1981; Barnett & Feild, 1978; Sigall & Ostrove, 1975; Izzett & Leginski, 1974; Efran, 1974; Nemeth & Sosis, 1973; Landy & Aronson, 1969). In general, the more attractive a defendant, the less guilt and punishment assigned to him (Efran, 1974). This phenomenon, termed the attraction-leniency effect, has been demonstrated with rape cases (Jacobson, 1981; Barnett & Feild, 1978), burglary (Sigall & Ostrove, 1975), and negligent automobile homicides (Izzett & Leginski, 1974; Landy & Aronson, 1969). However, Sigall and Ostrove (1975) indicate that this effect does not prevail when a physically attractive perpetrator has an advantage in the wrongdoing simply because he is attractive. For example, mock jurors sentencing attractive and unattractive defendants in a swindle case did not treat these perpetrators differently presumably as a compensation for the ease with which an attractive person can entice another to give him money under false pretenses. When

examining persuasive capabilities, Mills and Aronson (1969) discovered that their subjects were more easily induced to change their opinion when an attractive rather than an unattractive communicator attempted to influence them. The ability of a person with a pleasing appearance to easily influence others' judgments is certainly of utmost importance in the courtroom.

DEMONSTRATED LEVEL OF REMORSE. Other defendant characteristics also appear to affect juror judgments. Jacobson and Berger (1974) found that a perpetrator described as weeping during his trial was assigned significantly fewer years in prison than a perpetrator described as behaving in an arrogant manner. Rumsey's (1976) findings concerning a defendant's demonstrated level of remorse concur with those of Jacobson and Berger.

DEFENDANT'S PHYSICAL CONDITION. The physical condition of the defendant has been shown to be a factor that exerts an important effect on the attribution of fault in a given criminal case. For example, Fischer, Sison, Fehr, and Mc Mahon (1982) found that significantly less blame was attributed to a physically handicapped defendant than to either a defendant in good physical condition or to one in a control condition with no mention of physical fitness. This study also revealed that when no information was given on physical condition, an old rapist was attributed less blame than a middle-aged rapist.

#### FAMILIAL SUPPORT AND DEFENDANT'S GENDER.

Kalven

and Zeisel (1966) concluded that jurors are less severe when the defendant's wife and/or family accompany him to the trial as compared to cases in which there is no apparent familial support. This is especially true when the wife is pregnant or the family is very large. The defendant's gender also plays a role in the determination of the length of a prison sentence. Attractive females in a burglary case received significantly shorter sentences than attractive males involved in the same crime (Barnett & Feild, 1978). It is important for future research to extend the above findings to other perpetrator characteristics which may influence the amount of fault attributed to him for a crime.

#### JUROR CHARACTERISTICS

A cursory review of the literature concerned with the gender, locus of control, educational level, level of conservatism, and religiosity of the juror has indicated that these characteristics are associated with verdicts rendered within numerous types of simulated court cases. Although the studies presented within this section are correlational in nature, it is important to determine if there are personality factors of the jurors which tend to be associated with particular verdicts in certain types of cases. See Table 3 for a summary of the findings on juror characteristics.

JUROR'S GENDER. The general finding in numerous investigations of rape cases is that males and females differ in their perceptions about rape. Males have been found more likely than females to perceive a rape victim as having caused her attack in some fashion (Thornton, Ryckman, & Robbins, 1982; Thornton, Robbins, & Johnson, 1981; Calhoun, Selby, Cann, & Keller, 1978; Calhoun, Selby, & Warring, 1976). The opposite conclusion was drawn by Krulewitz and Payne (1978) who discovered that females find victims more responsible in the act of rape than do males. It must be noted at this point that Krulewitz and Payne conducted numerous analyses and issued warnings about the inflated alphas caused by such a procedure. Finally, Barnett and Feild (1977), using the Attitudes Toward Rape Questionnaire, concluded that more males than females agreed with general statements asserting that it should be more difficult to prove that a rape occurred. Though the above findings are mixed, it appears that, in general, females identify more with the victim and are therefore harsher on the rapist, and males identify more with the rapist and are therefore harsher on the victim.

LOCUS OF CONTROL. Rotter (1966) developed the Locus of Control Scale which differentiates those with a belief in internal control from those with a belief in external control. According to Rotter, due to their

particular reinforcement history, some people develop a belief in internal control; they believe that events affecting them are generally contingent on their own behavior. Others develop a belief in external control; they believe that events affecting them are a result of fate, luck, or powerful others. Using the Locus of Control Scale, it was found that people with a belief in an internal locus of control attribute more responsibility to a rape victim than those with a belief in an external locus of control (Paulsen, 1979). In a similar vein, Thornton, Robbins, and Johnson (1981) used the Personal-Environmental Causal Attribution Scale to measure the tendency of an individual to attribute controlling factors in another's life to personal or environmental sources. They found that subjects classified as "personals" also attributed a significantly greater degree of responsibility to a victim of rape than did subjects classified as "environmentalists".

JUROR'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL. Feild and Barnett (1978) and Nemeth and Sosis (1973) looked at crime attributions as a function of juror educational level. College students as compared to junior college students were more likely to give easier sentences to defendants accused of negligent homicide (Nemeth & Sosis, 1973). Feild and Barnett (1978) additionally found that college

students are significantly more lenient in sentencing behavior in a rape case than the general population.

LEVEL OF CONSERVATISM AND RELIGIOSITY.      The final consideration of juror psycholegal characteristics to be reviewed includes traditional/liberal attitudes and religiosity. Krulewitz and Payne (1978) found that women holding traditional views of feminine and masculine behavior required increasing levels of force before they were willing to assert that a rape had occurred. Liberal females, however, maintained that a rape occurred when sexual intercourse involved either nonphysical coercion, physical force with explicit threat of injury, or physical force with injury. Sison (1979), utilizing an incest case, found that increasing amounts of sex guilt and religiosity on the part of his mock jurors were negatively correlated with length of sentence for the defendant. The findings of Grannis, Fehr, and Stamps (1979) corroborated the work of Sison. Using fictitious court cases involving assault or rape, Grannis et al. found that females high in sex, morality, or hostility guilt, as well as those who are high in religiosity, dealt less harshly with the defendant than subjects who score low on these three types of guilt or religiosity.

It is clear that many juror characteristics are important factors affecting the assignment of guilt to

a defendant. It is important for future research to examine how these characteristics interact with victim, perpetrator, and circumstantial characteristics within the mock jury paradigm.

#### CIRCUMSTANTIAL CHARACTERISTICS

Circumstances surrounding both the crime and the trial affect juror verdict decisions and length of sentence. For example, under particular circumstances, a group discussion of the reasons for one's verdict will cause one to lessen the sentence given. Additionally, an escaped accomplice, the severity of the sentencing options, and the type of pretrial publicity surrounding a case have been found to affect sentencing and attribution of fault for a crime. For a summary of the below findings, see Table 4.

#### GROUP DISCUSSION OF ASSIGNED SENTENCE. Izzett

and Leginski (1974) had groups of subjects read the scenario used by Landy and Aronson (1969) which described either an unattractive or an attractive perpetrator involved in a negligent automobile homicide case. Each subject individually sentenced the defendant and made a public statement of the reasons causing him to arrive at his sentence. Following this procedure, each group discussed the case in detail, and, again, individually sentenced the perpetrator. There was a significant trend toward leniency from the first to the

second sentence in the unattractive defendant condition. No change in sentencing behavior in the attractive defendant condition occurred. It appears that group discussion of a case involving an unattractive defendant may cause a subject to conclude that he was too harsh in his sentencing. He may attribute his harshness to the unattractive physical characteristics of the defendant and therefore adjust his sentence in accord with the demands of the case. A subject sentencing an attractive defendant may believe that he sentenced the defendant accurately based upon the details of the case and is therefore not influenced by the group discussion.

#### SEVERITY OF SENTENCE OPTIONS AND ESCAPED ACCOMPLICES.

Vidmar (1972) found that decision alternatives influence jurors' verdicts when a case involving an attempted robbery and the consequent murder of a store proprietor is considered. When there is a moderate penalty option available to the jurors, they are more likely to find the defendant guilty than when the only penalty available is a severe one. Furthermore, an escaped accomplice appears to evoke sympathy on the jurors' part. Those defendants with escaped accomplices are given lighter sentences than defendants whose accomplices are also captured (De Jong, Morris, & Hastorf, 1976).



PRETRIAL PUBLICITY. Finally, pretrial publicity has been found to bias juror decision-making. Concerning a rape/murder case, Hoiberg and Stires (1973) found that females exposed to odious and incriminating pre-trial publicity are more likely to vote guilty than females exposed to low heinous publicity. Padawer-Singer and Barton (1975) used a tape recorded version of the trial of a defendant implicated in the murder of a prominent woman. Prior to hearing the tape, subjects were given "prejudicial" or "nonprejudicial" newspaper clippings about the defendant. It was found that 78% of the jurors in the "prejudicial" condition voted guilty, whereas only 55% of those in the "nonprejudicial" condition voted likewise.

In this cursory review of current jury research, it is apparent that many extralegal and psycholegal factors enter into the supposedly unbiased criminal justice system of America. It is imperative for social scientists to uncover the strength and direction of these effects and to ultimately bring their findings to the attention of those concerned with criminal justice.

#### SEX ROLES AND PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES QUESTIONNAIRE

Prior to the development of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975), measures of

masculinity and femininity construed these personality characteristics as opposite endpoints on a bipolar continuum (Heilbrun, 1964; Gough, 1952; Hathaway & Mc Kinley, 1943; Terman & Miles, 1936). Bem and Spence et al. made a significant contribution to sex role research by conceptualizing masculinity and femininity as orthogonal unipolar dimensions. However, Bem's inventory contains several major flaws. First, the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) Masculinity Scale is higher than the Femininity Scale on Social Desirability (Puglishi, 1980; Helmreich, Spence, & Holahan, 1979; Pedhauzer & Tetenbaum, 1979). Second, factor analytic studies demonstrate that the BSRI yields two factors in addition to masculinity and femininity. Therefore, this instrument is more psychometrically complex than Bem originally desired (Pedhauzer & Tetenbaum, 1979; Gross, Batlis, Small, & Erdwins, 1979; Moreland, Gulanick, Montague, & Harren, 1978; Gandreau, 1979). Third, the original version of the BSRI failed to differentiate people who were high in both masculinity and femininity and those who were low in both of these characteristics (Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975), however, constructed their instrument with the restriction that items on the Masculinity and Femininity Scales are socially desirable for both males and females, although

masculine items are slightly more desirable for males and feminine items are slightly more desirable for females. Helmreich, Spence, and Wilhelm (1981) conducted a factor analysis on data collected with the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) which verified a two factor solution of masculinity and femininity. It should also be pointed out that the development of the PAQ allows for four categorizations of sex role attitudes: Masculine--includes those who score high on masculinity and low on femininity; Feminine--includes those who score high on femininity and low on masculinity; Androgynous--includes those who score high on both scales; Undifferentiated--includes those who score low on both scales. The above four differentiations have been shown to be related to self-esteem and empathy. Androgynous subjects are highest in self-esteem, followed by masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated persons in that order (Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Foushee, Davis, and Archer (cited in Spence & Helmreich, 1978) found that high femininity scores were significantly related to high empathy scores. This last factor may be found to play an important role in mock jury research since the ability to experience the feelings of another is a precursor to identification with the other. As Shaver (1970) has demonstrated, when one views oneself as similar to another person, one attributes less blame

to that person for an event with negative consequences.

#### HYPOTHESES OF THE PRESENT INVESTIGATION

The present investigation extends current findings concerning the effect that particular victim and juror characteristics have on verdicts rendered in a rape incident. Specifically, the relevance of the situation from which a rape victim was abducted (from a female college student's point of view) and the rape victim's subsequent adjustment following her victimization were manipulated. Additionally, the relationship between one's sex role orientation and the percentage of guilt attributed to the victim in rape case was studied. Based on the above factors, the following hypotheses were proposed:

1. Victims abducted from relevant situations will be assigned significantly less fault than victims abducted from situations that are remote for a female college student. This hypothesis is based on Shaver's (1970) defensive attribution hypothesis which states that the responsibility assigned to a victim for an outcome with negative consequences decreases when the victim is viewed as similar to the observer (personal characteristics) or is described as being in a situation similar to one which the observer is likely to encounter (situational relevancy; Miller & Hewitt, 1978; Fulero &

De Lara, 1976; Sorrentino & Boutilier, 1974; Chaikin & Darley, 1973; Shaver, 1970).

2. There will be an interaction between situational relevance and the victim's adjustment following the rape. Specifically, the women in the irrelevant situation condition will not assign significantly different percentages of responsibility to those victims in the positive and negative adjustment conditions. However, subjects in the relevant condition will assign more responsibility to the victim with positive adjustment than to the victim with negative adjustment. This hypothesis is based upon a study conducted by Coates, Wortman, Abbey, and Holland (cited in Wortman, 1976). These researchers manipulated a rape victim's adjustment following her rape (positive/negative/no information) and manipulated the probability of rape (high/low vulnerability) in the geographical area in which the study took place. The latter manipulation was achieved by having female subjects read a newspaper article which gave statistical figures indicating that rape in the geographical area occurs with either high or low frequency. It was assumed that subjects reading the article claiming that the occurrence of rape was frequent would feel a high degree of vulnerability to this crime. Likewise, subjects reading the article

claiming that the occurrence of rape was not frequent were assumed to feel a low degree of vulnerability to this crime. Coates et al. found that more responsibility was assigned to the victim expressing positive adjustment than to the victim expressing negative adjustment in the high vulnerability situation. However, there were no differences in the amount of responsibility assigned to victims expressing either positive or negative adjustment in the low vulnerability situation.

3. There will be a significant difference in percent blame attributed to victims with positive adjustment as compared to negative adjustment. Because victims exhibiting positive adjustment following their rape will be seen as less seriously afflicted by the traumatic experience, they may be viewed as being more responsible for the crime than a victim displaying negative adjustment. Therefore, a greater percent of blame for the rape will be attributed to victims who are not severely disturbed by the experience.

4. Androgynous and masculine women (according to the PAQ) will attribute significantly more blame to the rapist than will those persons scoring as traditionally feminine. This is based on the finding that androgynous and masculine subjects are more profeminist than are feminine subjects (Baucom & Sanders, 1978) and on the fact that profeminists view any type of

coercion as proof of rape whereas traditional females require physical force as a prerequisite for rape (Krulewitz & Payne, 1978). It has also been found that those who support the women's movement attribute less blame to a rape victim for the crime than do anti-feminists (Miller, Smith, Ferree, & Taylor, 1976). Furthermore, since rape involves some degree of aggressiveness on the rapist's part simultaneously with some degree of submissiveness on the victim's part, both of which are congruent with traditional sex role attitudes, rape should not be perceived as widely deviant from typical sex role behavior by feminine women. Therefore, even though feminine subjects, who are high in empathy, may identify with the victim, it is predicated that they will attribute less blame to the rapist for the crime than masculine and androgynous subjects. Androgynous persons, however, view both sets of attributes as appropriate for males and females (Bem, 1974; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975). Therefore, they should not excuse such aggressive behavior displayed in the crime of rape as merely masculine-appropriate behavior.

## CHAPTER II

### METHOD

#### SUBJECTS

The subjects were 126 females randomly drawn from the introductory psychology courses at Lehigh University who participated in the study as a partial fulfillment of the requirements of these courses. The mean age of the subjects was 18.83 years.

#### MATERIALS

PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES QUESTIONNAIRE. The Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) was used to assess the subjects' personality characteristics of masculinity and femininity (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975). The PAQ consists of 24 bipolar items such that three sets of eight items each constitute the Masculine (M), Feminine (F), and the Masculine-Feminine (M-F) scales of the inventory. Subjects were asked to rate themselves on a five-point scale for each pair of items. From the ratings on the M and F scales, subjects were classified as Masculine, Feminine, Androgynous, or Undifferentiated. A median split procedure is typically used for this purpose. However, this procedure forces the sex role variable to take on the functions of a random variable and limits generalizations and comparisons between samples (Sedney, 1981). For the purpose of this study, therefore, the medians established by Spence and



Helmreich (1978) based upon 715 male and female college students were used to yield the following definitions: Masculine--subjects scoring 21 or above on the M scale and below 23 on the F scale; Feminine--subjects scoring 23 or above on the F scale and below 21 on the M scale; Androgynous--subjects scoring 21 or above on the M scale and 23 or above on the F scale; Undifferentiated-- subjects scoring below the above specified points on the respective scales. This process will yield a fixed sex role factor. For the purpose of this classification system, the M-F scale is not used.

TAPE RECORDING OF THE VICTIM. A tape recorded version of the circumstances surrounding the rape was told by the "victim" (See Appendix A). The situational relevancy of the abduction and the victim's consequent adjustment were manipulated. Specifically, the victim was described as being abducted from situations highly relevant to college students (e.g. leaving the university library, football game, etc.) or being abducted from situations that are remote for college students (e.g. leaving the home for the elderly where she is employed as a nurse's aide, clinic where she is employed as a dental hygienist, etc.). Six relevant and six irrelevant situations were used to avoid category confound (Kay & Richter, 1977). These situations constituted the independent variable termed "case". Approximately half

of the subjects heard a tape of a victim who adjusted well to the crime (positive adjustment) and the remaining subjects heard a tape of a victim who was totally distraught by her situation (negative adjustment). Twelve volunteers were randomly assigned to read each of two cases which were nested under the relevant and irrelevant situations with the restriction that the two cases be from different Situational Relevance X Victim's Adjustment conditions. This resulted in a total of 24 versions of the rape such that six cases were nested under each Situational Relevance condition. Cases and Situational Relevance were each crossed with Victim's Adjustment. Each case was described in a manner leaving no reasonable doubt that the perpetrator is guilty. However, the percent of fault attributable to the victim and to the perpetrator was not defined by the victim's account of her rape.

#### PROCEDURE

Groups of subjects ranging in size from one to seven participated in each experimental session. Tapes were repeated to different groups of subjects when necessitated in order to fulfill the condition that each case within a Situational Relevance X Victim's Adjustment combination contain between five and seven subjects. Subjects were greeted by one of four female experimenters and were seated such that they faced away from one

another, thus eliminating the influence of the other participants' facial expressions on the percentage of guilt assigned to the perpetrator and to the victim.

Subjects were first asked to complete the personal data sheets found on the top of their desks. One sheet requested demographic information. The other sheets of data constituted the PAQ.

The next phase of the study entailed having the subjects listen to one of the tape recordings of the twelve "rape victims" who told the details surrounding her rape. Immediately following the end of the tape, subjects were told to answer the questions contained in the manila envelope under their desks. These questions directed the subjects to assign the percent of guilt attributable to the rape victim and the percent of guilt attributable to the rapist. It was stressed that these two percentages must sum to 100%. After completing the task, subjects were given a debriefing statement describing the hypotheses and purpose of the investigation (See Appendix B).

## CHAPTER III

### RESULTS

#### SITUATIONAL RELEVANCE, VICTIM'S ADJUSTMENT, AND CASE

A Hierarchal Analysis on unweighted means was used to analyze the main effects and interactions of Situational Relevance (relevant/irrelevant place of abduction), Victim's Adjustment following her rape (positive/negative), and Case (e.g. Victim was abducted as she was leaving the university library, a night class, etc.) on percent blame attributed to the victim (See Kirk, 1968). Table 5 presents the Analysis of Variance summary table for these data. Nonsignificant effects were found for Situational Relevance ( $F = 2.325$ ,  $df = 1,10$ ,  $p \geq .05$ ), Victim's Adjustment following her rape ( $F = .014$ ,  $df = 1,10$ ,  $p \geq .05$ ), and Situational Relevance X Victim's Adjustment ( $F = .134$ ,  $df = 1,10$ ,  $p \geq .05$ ). However, there was a significant main effect for Case,  $F = 3.271$ ,  $df = 10,102$ , and a significant interaction between Case and Victim's Adjustment,  $F = 6.244$ ,  $df = 10,102$  ( $p \leq .01$  for both effects). Appendix C presents a tabular display of the means yielded by these data.

#### SEX ROLE ATTITUDES

A presentation of the percentage of subjects from the present study versus the study by Spence and

Helmreich (1978) who fell into each sex role category is given in Table 6.

A planned comparison was conducted to determine if the percent of blame attributed to the victim by masculine and androgynous subjects versus feminine subjects differed (see Keppel, 1973). A nonsignificant effect was found in this analysis,  $F = .328$ ,  $df = 1, 122$ . The remaining portion of variance accounting for the overall effect of sex role attitude on percentage of blame attributed to the victim also yielded a nonsignificant effect,  $F = .046$ ,  $df = 2, 122$ .

## CHAPTER IV

### DISCUSSION

None of the proposed hypotheses were supported in this experiment. First, there were no significant differences in the percent of responsibility attributed to victims abducted from relevant versus irrelevant situations. Therefore, Shaver's (1970) contention that a person who is either personally or situationally similar to an observer will be assigned less responsibility for an incident with severe negative consequences than a person who is either personally or situationally dissimilar to an observer is not supported. One possible explanation for this failure to support the defensive attribution hypothesis is offered by the significant main effect found for cases. It appears that subjects may not have responded to the situational relevance of the assault per se, but rather may have responded to specific cases presented under each relevance condition. Thus, the significant main effect for cases supports Kay and Richter's (1977) contention that use of only one case under each condition is inappropriate if one wishes to generalize one's results to the category under which the cases are nested since subjects respond differently to cases representative of the same class of phenomena. However, an experimenter may use only one case under a category if she delimits generaliza-

tions to only that specific type of case used in her investigation. Additionally, because there were twelve different confederates, each of whom read two scenarios, it is possible that subjects were not actually responding to the cases nested under each relevance condition, but instead may have attributed responsibility for the assault based upon the quality and sincerity of the alleged rape victim's voice. One piece of supporting evidence for this explanation is provided by the significant interaction between Case and Victim's Adjustment. Because readers were randomly assigned to cases, one would expect to find a significant interaction between Case and other factors if the subjects were in fact responding to the quality of the readers' voices. Further support is provided by the results of a post hoc unweighted means Analysis of Variance which was conducted on the twelve confederates' voices. This was done by collapsing across all factors in order to determine if the readers' voices affected how much blame was assigned to the victim. A significant voice effect was found ( $F = 2.16$ ,  $df = 11, 114$ ,  $p < .05$ ). This indicates that future research should be directed at using only those tapes which portray a high quality of reality and sincerity. Because the present study did not control for voice quality, it should not be viewed as a strong piece of nonsupporting evidence for the defensive attribution

hypothesis. Other research shows that there is strong support for this phenomenon as described by Shaver (1970). For example, in his meta-analysis of 22 studies, Burger (1981) concludes that when situational relevance and personal similarity are manipulated, the defensive attribution hypothesis is supported. Furthermore, Fincham and Hewstone (1982) have found that manipulation of situational relevance and personal similarity is not orthogonal. Specifically, subjects in the highly relevant condition tend to view themselves as more personally similar to a protagonist than subjects in the low relevant condition. Therefore, it is unlikely that the nonsignificant effect for situational relevance in the present investigation could be explained by the fact that the subjects in the relevant condition viewed themselves as personally dissimilar to the alleged rape victims within this condition.

Second, no interaction was found between situational relevance and the victim's adjustment following her rape. Third, the percent of blame attributed to victims with positive versus negative adjustment did not differ significantly. Once again, the nonsignificance of these effects may be due to the lack of control of the quality and realness of the "victims'" voices.

The main concern in this study relative to the victim's adjustment was to determine how the victim's



reaction to her assault affects the reaction of others to the victim. It is important to note that although no significant differences were found for the percent of responsibility attributed to the victim in the positive versus negative adjustment conditions, nor was an interaction between the situational relevance and the victim's adjustment found, this does not preclude the possibility that persons who adjust differently to their victimization are treated differently by others. For example, Symonds (1975) notes that others often exclude victims of violent crime from normal social exchange. Coates, Wortman, and Abbey (1979) state that victims of crime may prompt rejection by others because they display behaviors which are upsetting and threatening to those around them. Although this is true, evidence suggests that it is helpful for victims, in learning to cope with their problems, to express their negative feelings to others who are supportive (Wortman & Silver, cited in Coates et al., 1979). Future research should focus on clarifying the reaction of others to victims of violent crime who demonstrate differing levels of adjustment. In an applied sense, it is equally important to study these reactions as it is to study the percent of fault attributed to a person for her victimization. It is possible that others' responses to victims are completely independent of how

much fault they attribute to her for a crime.

Fourth, there were no significant differences found in the amount of responsibility attributed to the victim by androgynous and masculine subjects versus feminine subjects. An explanation for this nonsignificant effect may be found in the theoretical underpinnings of the PAQ. That is, it is hypothesized that there is a weak relationship between sex role orientation according to the PAQ and behavior unless the behavior directly involves expressiveness or instrumentality (Spence, 1982; Helmreich, Spence, & Holahan, 1979; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Specifically, the PAQ contains expressive and instrumental traits which do not appear to be strongly related to other characteristics of masculinity and femininity (Spence & Helmreich, 1980). Future research should center on the relationship between traditional/nontraditional beliefs concerning women and blame attribution in rape cases.

One final suggestion centering around the PAQ is offered by the present author. If the PAQ does not measure masculinity and femininity as global constructs, perhaps these terms should be eliminated as categorical names since they undoubtedly contribute to the confusion and misuse surrounding this instrument. It may clarify the constructs to label those "masculine" subjects as instrumentally-oriented and those "feminine" subjects

as expressively-oriented if this is what Spence and her colleagues actually mean by the terms masculinity and femininity, respectively.

Finally, it is important to discuss the implications and flaws of juridic research in general. In a review of the literature, Gerbasi, Zuckerman, and Reis (1977) enumerate several major problems common to typical juridic studies which limit their generalizability to real world situations. First, although jurors in real trials are typically restricted to verdict decisions, most jury studies ask subjects to sentence the perpetrator rather than to assign a verdict. Second, most studies deal solely with decisions made by individuals, although decisions made by true jurors are based on group consensus. An important study which questions the generalizability of decisions rendered by individual subjects to decisions rendered by groups of individuals was conducted by Izzett and Leginski (1974). These researchers found that sentences assigned to a defendant by individual subjects were significantly different from those assigned to the same defendant by groups of subjects. Davis, Bray, and Holt (1977) additionally criticize juridic research on the basis that most studies use college students as subjects and it is doubtful that college students are representative of the general population. Empirical support for this

contention by Davis et al. is provided by Feild and Barnett (1978) who found that college students are more lenient than "real" people in sentencing behavior within a simulated jury trial. Additionally, Wilson and Donnerstein (1977) found that subjects knowing that their verdicts would have real consequences rendered more guilty verdicts than those subjects knowing that their decisions would have no real consequences. Diamond and Zeisel (1974), however, reached the opposite conclusion in their study when they found that fewer guilty sentences were rendered by subjects knowing that their verdicts would have real consequences than by subjects knowing that their verdicts would have no real consequences. One final flaw with juridic research centers on the finding that different modes of presenting the simulated trial result in significantly different numbers of guilty verdicts (Juhnke, Vought, Pyszczyński, Dane, Losure, & Wrightsman, 1979; Bermant, Mc Guire, Mc Kinley, & Salo, 1974). Therefore, caution must be taken when attempting to compare the results of studies which differ in the type of material to which the subjects were exposed.

In conclusion, it is noted that great care must be taken when comparing the results of juridic studies using the same manipulations. Modes of presenting the material and the manner in which verdicts are

secured are often extraneous variables which affect the final results of the study. Additionally, in order to gain more external validity, future experiments should be concerned with more realistic circumstances (i.e. real consequences) and should attempt to study persons constituting the general population of non-college students.

Finally, research focusing on the defensive attribution hypothesis should continue to flourish with an emphasis on uncovering what types of personal similarities and situational relevance lead to a decrease in the percent of responsibility attributed to a victim or a perpetrator, or lead to the rejection of one who is attempting to cope with his/her victimization. Most importantly, in order to ensure any generalizability at all, attention should be paid to the quality of any audio or visual tapes presented to the subjects since this will undoubtedly affect the way in which they respond.

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Table 1  
Victim Characteristics

| Study                                   | N  | Finding  |
|---|--|--|
| <u>Victim Similarity to Juror</u>       |  |  |
| Miller & Hewitt<br>1978                 | 83 females<br>50 males<br>about $\frac{1}{2}$ black<br>and $\frac{1}{2}$ white | Guilty verdicts were more likely when the victim was of the same race as the juror.  |
| Fulero & De Lara<br>1976                | 92 females<br>78 males   | Female subjects attributed less responsibility to rape victims perceived as similar to selves.   |
| Chaikin & Darley<br>1973                | 40 males<br>(paid volunteers)  | Less responsibility for an accident with negative consequences was attributed to similar persons.  |
| <u>Victim's Perceived Honesty</u>       |  |  |
| Sealy & Wain<br>1980                    | 56 groups of<br>12 persons from<br>London's general population                 | Perceived honesty of a sexual assault victim was related to assignment of a "guilty" verdict. Perceived honesty of a defendant was related to a "not guilty" verdict in a theft case.                        |
| <u>Victim's Physical Attractiveness</u> |  |  |
| Seligman, Brickman, &<br>Koulack 1977   | 48 females<br>48 males   | Unattractive rape victims were believed to have provoked the rape to a greater extent than attractive rape victims. Attractive females were perceived as more likely rape victims than unattractive females. |
| Kanekar, Kolsawalla, &<br>D'Souza 1981  | 240 graduate<br>students   | Males rated rape as more likely when the victim was attractive; females rated rape as more likely when the victim was attractive.  |
| Calhoun, Selby, Cann, &<br>Jeller 1978  | 45 females<br>28 males<br>(paid volunteers)                                    | Attractive rape victims were viewed as having exerted more influence in perpetrating their rape than unattractive rape victims.  |

Table 1  
Victim Characteristics

| Study  | N                        | Finding  |
|--|--------------------------|--|
| <u>Victim's Pleasantness</u>                     |                          |  |
| Landy & Aronson<br>1969                          | 377 students             | A defendant killing a pleasant person was treated more harshly than a defendant killing an unpleasant person.  |
| <u>Victim's Respectability</u>                   |                          |  |
| Alexander<br>1980                                | 321 nurses               | Rape and assault victims described as "not respectable" were assigned more blame than "respectable" victims for their victimization.   |
| Smith, Keating, Hester,<br>Reid, & Mitchell 1976 | 241 females              | Unrespectable rape victims who were acquainted with the rapist were attributed more blame than respectable rape victims. Greater responsibility was attributed to victims in the acquainted versus the unacquainted condition. |
| Jones & Aronson                                  | 234 undergraduates       | Less respectable rape victims were attributed more fault for a rape than more respectable victims.   |
| <u>Victim's Age and Past Sexual Experience</u>   |                          |  |
| Calhoun, Selby, Long,<br>& Laney 1980            | 51 females<br>48 males   | Less blame was attributed to rape victims from extreme age categories as compared to victims from the middle-age category.   |
| Cann, Calhoun, &<br>Selby. 1979                  | 128 undergraduates       | A victim refusing to talk about her past sexual experience was perceived as more responsible for her rape than victims described as sexually naive or those with no mention of past sexual experience.                         |
| <u>Victim's Emotional Adjustment</u>             |                          |  |
| Coates, Wortman, Abbey,<br>& Holland 1976        | 106 females<br>122 males | Subjects believing that rape was common in their area attributed more responsibility to a rape victim displaying positive versus negative adjustment.  |

Table 1  
Victim Characteristics

| Study                                | N                      | Finding   |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------|---|
| <u>Victim's Emotional Adjustment</u> |                        |   |
| Calhoun, Cann, &<br>Selby 1981       | 86 females<br>44 males | A distraught rape victim was viewed as being more credible in her claim that she was raped and as being more motivated to avoid the rape than an emotionally controlled victim. |

Table 2  
Perpetrator Characteristics

| Study                     | N                                 | Finding   |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|
| <u>Attractiveness</u>     |                                   |   |
| Jacobson<br>1981          | 60 females<br>60 males            | An attractive defendant accused of rape was more likely to convince others of his innocence or was given a shorter sentence than an unattractive defendant.   |
| Barnett & Feild<br>1978   | 60 female and<br>60 male citizens | An unattractive rapist was given a more severe sentence than an attractive rapist. The attractiveness of a defendant in a burglary case was unrelated to his sentence.  |
| Sigall & Ostrove<br>1975  | 60 females<br>60 males            | When a crime was unrelated to attractiveness, attractive defendants were assigned shorter sentences than unattractive defendants. When a crime was related to attractiveness, attractive defendants were assigned longer sentences. |
| Izzett & Leginski<br>1974 | 50 undergraduates                 | Attractive defendants were treated less harshly than unattractive defendants.   |
| Efran<br>1974             | 66 undergraduates                 | Attractive defendants were treated less harshly than unattractive defendants.   |
| Nemeth & Sosis<br>1973    | 80 undergraduates                 | Attractive defendants were treated less harshly than unattractive defendants.   |
| Landy & Aronson<br>1969   | 377 undergraduates                | Attractive defendants were given less severe sentences than unattractive defendants.  |
| Mills & Aronson<br>1965   | 97 males                          | Attractive communicators more easily persuaded subjects to change their opinions as compared to unattractive communicators.   |

Table 2  
Perpetrator Characteristics

| Study                                      | N                                      | Finding   |
|--|--|---|
| <u>Demonstrated Level of Remorse</u>       |  |   |
| Jacobson & Berger<br>1974                  | 212 male and<br>female citi-<br>zens   | Perpetrators demonstrating<br>a high level of remorse were<br>assigned significantly<br>lighter sentences than per-<br>petrators demonstrating no<br>remorse.       |
| Rumsey<br>1976                             | 48 females<br>48 males                 | Defendants demonstrating<br>a high level of remorse were<br>treated less harshly than<br>those defendants demon-<br>strating no remorse.                            |
| <u>Physical Condition of the Defendant</u> |  |   |
| Fischer, Sison, Fehr,<br>& Mc Mahon 1982   | 120 females<br>120 males               | Physically handicapped and<br>elderly defendants are<br>attributed less blame for<br>incest than physically<br>healthy and middle-aged<br>defendants, respectively. |
| <u>Familial Support</u>                    |  |   |
| Kalven & Zeisel<br>1966                    | Summary of<br>3576 U.S.<br>court cases | Jurors were less harsh when<br>a defendant's family accom-<br>panies him to the trial as<br>compared to defendants with<br>no apparent familial support.            |
| <u>Defendant's Gender</u>                  |  |   |
| Barnett & Feild<br>1978                    | 60 female<br>60 male<br>citizens       | Attractive females were<br>given lighter sentences<br>than attractive males in<br>a burglary case.  |

Table 3  
Juror Characteristics

| Study                               | N                                      | Finding   |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| <u>Juror's Gender</u>               |  |   |
| Calhoun, Selby, & Warring 1976      | 64 females<br>64 males                 | Males viewed the victim as contributing to the rape to a greater degree than females.                                       |
| Thornton, Ryckman, & Robbins 1982   | 115 females<br>97 males                | Males viewed the victim as contributing to the rape to a greater degree than females.                                       |
| Thornton, Robbins, & Johnson 1981   | 91 females<br>82 males                 | Males perceived a rape victim to be significantly more responsible for the crime than females.                              |
| Calhoun, Selby, Cann, & Keller 1978 | 45 females<br>28 males                 | Males perceived a rape victim to be significantly more responsible for the crime than females.                              |
| Krulewitz & Payne 1978              | 118 females<br>114 males               | Women attributed greater responsibility to a rape victim for her rape than men.   |
| Barnett & Feild 1977                | 200 females<br>200 males               | More males than females believed that it should be more difficult to prove that a rape occurred.                            |
| <u>Locus of Control</u>             |  |   |
| Paulsen 1979                        | 32 undergraduates                      | Internal locus of control subjects attributed greater blame to the rape victim than did external locus of control subjects. |
| Thornton, Robbins, & Johnson 1981   | 91 females<br>82 males                 | "Personal" subjects attributed more responsibility to the rape victim than "environmental" subjects.                        |
| <u>Juror Educational Level</u>      |  |   |
| Nemeth & Sosis 1973                 | 80 college and junior college students | The junior college sample gave harsher sentences than the college sample to a defendant accused of negligent homicide.      |



Table 3  
Juror Characteristics

| Study  | N   | Finding  |
|--|---|--|
| <u>Juror Educational Level</u>                       |   |  |
| Feild & Barnett<br>1978                              | 80 undergraduates; 80 permanent noncollege citizens | College students were more lenient in sentencing defendants in rape cases than non-student citizens.   |
| <u>Traditional/Liberal Attitudes and Religiosity</u> |   |  |
| Krulewitz & Payne<br>1978                            | 118 females<br>114 males                            | Females with traditional views required increasing levels of force before they were willing to assert that a rape occurred. Liberal females maintained that a rape occurred when sexual intercourse involved any type of coercion. |
| Sison<br>1979  | 240 undergraduates                                  | Levels of sex guilt and religiosity were negatively correlated with length of sentence in incest cases.  |
| Grannis, Fehr, &<br>Stamps 1979                      | 98 females  | Levels of guilt and religiosity were negatively related to length of sentence in assault and rape cases.   |

Table 4  
Circumstantial Characteristics

| Study                                 | N   | Finding   |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| <u>Group Discussion</u>               |   |   |
| Izzett & Leginski<br>1974             | 50 under-<br>graduates                                  | There was a significant shift towards leniency after discussion of the verdict for an unattractive defendant but not for an attractive defendant. |
| <u>Decision Alternatives</u>          |   |   |
| Vidmar<br>1972                        | 227 under-<br>graduates                                 | Having severe sentences as the only penalty option tended to sway jurors to choose the "not guilty" verdict.                                      |
| <u>Escaped Accomplices</u>            |   |   |
| De Jong, Morris, &<br>Hastorf 1976    | 144 under-<br>graduates                                 | Less severe punishments were assigned to defendants with escaped versus captured accomplices.   |
| <u>Exposure to Pretrial Publicity</u> |   |   |
| Holberg & Stires<br>1973              | 337 high school<br>students                             | Females exposed to severely prejudicial material more often voted guilty than females exposed to less severe prejudicial material.                |
| Padawer-Singer &<br>Barton 1975       | 120 jurors<br>selected at<br>random from<br>a jury pool | More jurors who have been exposed to prejudicial material voted guilty than jurors exposed to nonprejudicial material.                            |

Table 5  
 Analysis of Variance on the Effects of Situational  
 Relevancy, Victim Adjustment, and Case  
 on Percent of Guilt attributed  
 to the Victim

| Source                          | SS      | df  | MS     | F      |
|---------------------------------|---------|-----|--------|--------|
| A<br>(Situational<br>Relevancy) | 617.76  | 1   | 617.76 | 2.325  |
| G<br>(Victim<br>Adjustment)     | 7.00    | 1   | 7.00   | .014   |
| AG                              | 68.08   | 1   | 68.08  | .134   |
| C<br>(Cases)                    | 2657.01 | 10  | 265.70 | 3.271* |
| CG                              | 5071.65 | 10  | 507.16 | 6.244* |
| S<br>(Subjects)                 | 8284.60 | 102 | 81.22  |        |

\* $p < .01$

Table 6

Percentage of Subjects falling into each  
of the Sex Role Categories

|                            | Androgynous | Masculine | Feminine | Undiff. |
|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|----------|---------|
| Present Study              | 31          | 13        | 44       | 12      |
| Spence & Helmreich's Study | 27          | 14        | 32       | 28      |

## Appendix A

On March 12, 1981 I was leaving \_\_\_\_\*. It was about ten P.M. Several people offered me a ride, but since I live so close to the \_\_\*\*, I decided to walk home alone. What a mistake that was! I walked about 100 feet when a man grabbed me from behind. He gripped my neck very tightly and shined a three- or four- inch knife in my face. He said he wouldn't hurt me if I did what he told me to do with no screaming or fighting. He said his car was parked near by and I was to walk to it next to his side. I was frightened and quite sure he would indeed harm me if I resisted. I did everything I could to make my legs stop shaking so I could start walking.

We soon came to a blue Malibu. He opened the door behind the wheel and told me to slide in to the passenger's side. He got in after me and we drove about 30 miles. All the while he clasped the knife and warned me not to try anything funny.

He took a back road into a wooded area and stopped the car. Now, holding the knife to my throat, he commanded me to take off my clothes...and then, he raped me. He threw my clothes into the grass after he raped me and told me to find my own way back. He then pulled out and went down the road at a tremendous speed.

It took me some time to realize what had happened, and what had to be done next. I dressed myself and

walked about a mile back to the main road and started walking towards home. At that point, I didn't realize how far we had driven. Several car passed, and I tried to flag them down. Finally, the fifth car stopped and took me to the police station. Based on my description, the police apprehended my attacker whom I identified the next day.

\*\*\*

\*

(Relevant Condition)

the university library.

a night class.

a football game.

a club meeting.

a concert on campus.

a play on campus.

(Irrelevant Condition)

the hospital where I am employed as a nurse.

the clinic where I am employed as a dental hygienist.

the studio where I am employed as an artist.

the bank where I am employed as a teller.

the home for the elderly where I am employed as a  
nurse's aide.

the courthouse where I am employed as a stenographer.

\*\*

(Relevant Condition)

university

(Irrelevant Condition)

hospital

clinic

studio

bank

home

courthouse

\*\*\*

Script for positive affect:

My life has been fine since then. I was surprised that I was able to deal with this so effectively. As a result of how I've learned to cope with being raped, I've remained interested in men.

Script for negative affect:

My life has been horrible since then. I was surprised that I was not able to deal with this more effectively. As a result of my inability to cope with being raped, I've lost all interest in men.



## Appendix B

There were a number of versions of tape-recordings similar to the one you heard. Each version manipulated where the person was abducted and how she coped with being raped. We are interested in determining if these manipulations affect how much blame is attributed to the victim, how much blame is attributed to the rapist, and how much blame is attributed to the circumstances surrounding the rape.

It should be noted that the recordings were not, as we originally said, of alleged rape victims, but were recordings of scenarios played by volunteers. However, because it is well known by psychologists that many extra-legal factors enter into any court case, the experimenters believed that illumination of the problems surrounding the conviction is important enough to justify the use of deception.

You also anonymously completed the Personal Attributes Questionnaire developed by Janet Spence, Robert Helmreich, and Joy Stapp. This questionnaire lists socially desirable masculine and feminine traits. That is, the masculine traits on this scale were found to be more socially desirable for males, although they are also socially desirable for females; and the feminine traits on this scale were likewise found to be more socially desirable for females, although they are also

socially desirable for males. The experimenters are interested in investigating the overall relationship between the subjects' responses on this scale and the amount of responsibility assigned to the victim, the rapist, and the circumstances surrounding the rape.

# Appendix C

Mean Percentage of Fault attributed to the Victim  
as a Function of Situational Relevancy,  
Victim's Adjustment, and Case

| RELEVANT PLACE OF ABDUCTION |      |      |      |      |     |     |                  |
|-----------------------------|------|------|------|------|-----|-----|------------------|
| Case                        | 1    | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5   | 6   | Treatment Means* |
| Positive Adjustment         | 7.2  | 17.2 | 15.2 | 1.4  | 7.2 | 5.3 | 8.8              |
| Negative Adjustment         | 13.4 | 2.4  | 13.0 | 16.3 | 7.0 | 7.4 | 10.1             |

| IRRELEVANT PLACE OF ABDUCTION |      |      |      |      |      |     |      |
|-------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|------|
| Case                          | 7    | 8    | 9    | 10   | 11   | 12  |      |
| Positive Adjustment           | 12.2 | 30.0 | 24.2 | 7.7  | 12.0 | 3.0 | 13.9 |
| Negative Adjustment           | 5.2  | 7.2  | 14.0 | 35.0 | 8.0  | 8.0 | 12.6 |

\*based upon unequal n's

## Vita

Pamela M. Mc Mahon was born to Anthony and Carole Mc Mahon on September 22, 1957 in New Orleans, La. She was graduated from St. Mary's Dominican High School in 1975. Miss Mc Mahon attended the University of New Orleans from 1975 to 1979. She received the T.H. Harris Scholarship during the spring semester of 1976. Immediately following her graduation from the University of New Orleans in 1979, Miss Mc Mahon began graduate work towards the master's degree in psychology at the University of Hartford where she held a teaching assistantship. The following year, Miss Mc Mahon began study in the doctoral program at Lehigh University. She has held a teaching assistantship in the Psychology Department from 1980 through the present. Miss Mc Mahon's list of teaching and professional experience is listed on the following pages.

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Teaching Experience:

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Introductory Psychology -- instructor  
Psychology of Women -- teaching assistant  
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Experimental Psychology -- teaching assistant

1981

Adolescent Psychology -- teaching assistant  
Abnormal Psychology -- teaching assistant  
Introductory Psychology -- supervised instructor  
Experimental Psychology -- teaching assistant

1980

Child Psychology -- teaching assistant  
Experimental Social Psychology -- teaching assistant

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## Publications

- Fehr, L. A., Mc Mahon, P. M., & Fehr, K. M. Coordination of perspectives: Orientations of the other observer. The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1982, 140, 151-152.
- Fehr, L. A., Ackerman, A. M., & Mc Mahon, P. M. Introduction to Personality (Instructor's Manual). New York: Macmillan, 1982.
- Fehr, L. A., Lapsley, D. K., Enright, R. D., & Mc Mahon, P. M. Coordination of perspectives: The importance of stimulus dimensionality. The Journal of Genetic Psychology, in press.
- Fehr, L. A., Stamps, L. E., & Mc Mahon, P. M. Journal evaluations: Are they really evaluations of authors? American Psychology, 1981, 36, 1456-1457.
- Rizzo, A. A., Fehr, L. A., Mc Mahon, P. M., & Stamps, L. E. Mosher guilt scores and sexual preference. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1981, 37, 827-830.

## Manuscripts under Review

- Mc Mahon, P. M., & Fehr, L. A. Methodological problems in mock jury research. Submitted for publication to the Journal of Social Psychology.
- Ackerman, A. M., Mc Mahon, P. M., & Fehr, L. A. Mock trial jury defendants as a function of adolescent juror guilt and hostility. Submitted for publication to The Journal of Genetic Psychology.
- Ackerman, A. M., Mc Mahon, P. M., & Fehr, L. A. Defendant characteristics and judgment behaviors of adolescent mock jurors. Submitted for publication to the Journal of Youth and Adolescence.

## Presentations

- Mc Mahon, P. M., Clarke, J. C., Ackerman, A. M., & Fehr, L. A. Masculinity, femininity, and guilt: Relationships uncovered. Paper presented at the meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Baltimore, 1982.

Ackerman, A. M., Mc Mahon, P. M., & Fehr, L. A.  
Defendant characteristics and judgment behaviors of mock jurors. Paper presented at the meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Baltimore, 1982.

Fischer, S. M., Sison, G. F., Fehr, L. A., & Mc Mahon, P. M. Mock juror decisions as a function of the age and physical condition of the defendant. Paper presented at the meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Baltimore, 1982.

Fehr, L. A., Lapsley, D. K., Enright, R. D., Mc Mahon, P. M., & Rizzo, A. A. Coordination of perspectives: The importance of stimulus dimensionalities. Paper presented at the meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, New York, 1981.

Heretick, D. M. L., Mc Mahon, P. M., & Fischer, S. M. Perceived sex-role identities of self and significant others among traditional and nontraditional male and female college majors. Paper presented at the meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Hartford, 1980.

#### Presentation Manuscripts under Review

Mc Mahon, P. M., & Blank, T. O. A new approach to attribution research: Convergence of the conceptual and applied frameworks. Submitted for presentation at the meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Philadelphia, 1983.

Kilpatrick, C. C., Fehr, L. A., Mc Mahon, P. M., & Ackerman, A. M. A comparison of guilt and religiosity among university student, community college student, and senior citizen groups. Submitted for presentation at the meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Philadelphia, 1983.

Ackerman, A. M., Cefalo, M., Fischer, S. M., Fehr, L. A., & Mc Mahon, P. M. The import of defendant criminal record and type of counsel in jury case decisions. Submitted for presentation at the meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Philadelphia, 1983.

Research Interests: The effects of extralegal factors on mock jury decisions; correlates of sex role orientation; attributions about a variety of circumstances; and the validation of personality scales and factors